

THE CEA CRITIC

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Regional Exchange:

Communication, Not Conclave

For some years the collective ears of the national CEA have been attuned to the repeated requests for extended regional coverage in *The CEA Critic*. At each annual breakfast-program for regional leaders the request has been voiced, and the Committee on Regional Activity and Development recommended the inclusion of a monthly column devoted to news of regional activities. The report of the December meeting was the first communication and was featured on the front page of the January issue.

If such a department is to serve its purpose, however, information from each and every regional organization is urgently needed. The secretary, or some other designated officer, of each regional or state group could aid immensely by providing a current list of the officers in his region and their addresses. The roll of regional presidents in *The CEA Critic* each month is accurate only to the degree that such data is communicated.

A part of the call is for information concerning regional program planning; both advance information and a copy of the final program would be helpful. In addition, a brief summary of the high points would be interesting to readers from other areas. All such material should be sent to Box 207, Mississippi State University, State College, Mississippi. For maximum effectiveness copies could also be sent to Executive Director John Hicks and Editor Don Sears; but for this column, Regional Exchange, the Mississippi address should be used.

Although the dramatic announcements concerning changes in top CEA leadership kept the atmosphere electric, the annual meeting of officers and directors in Chicago did not neglect the usual committee reports, among them that of the Committee on Regional Activity and Development. Certain points of the report should be of interest to the officers and members of the several regionals.

For example, the Greater New York Regional is especially to be commended for its excellent follow-up of last year's suggestion that each regional organization share its program with others by sending out copies of a summary program. Herman Estrin (Newark College of Engineering) initiated the practice during his tenure as president, and Dick Bowman (The Cooper Union) has continued it.

From another front, Joe Doggett (University of Houston) reports that the South-Central CEA projected a newsletter at its

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TRANSITIONAL DEVICES IN HENRY JAMES

"If there is one difficulty that harasses students more than any other," Harold C. Martin writes in *The Logic and Rhetoric of Exposition*, "it is the linking together of sentences and paragraphs." Harold Whitehall, in *Structural Essentials of English*, explains the reason for this difficulty: "In speech, variations of tone, voice quality, facial expression, and hand movements may tell much about connections of idea with idea. In writing, none of these can operate. Instead, we have to learn to substitute standardized grammatical equivalents for them, and to use those equivalents with the delicate discriminations which, through long years of practice, we have learned to apply automatically in speech." Accomplished style in both fiction and non-fiction, as the work of Henry James demonstrates, depends above all upon skill in the craft of exposition, because both the novelist and the essayist share the task of explaining, of revealing to sense that which lies hidden from the reader. And if, as many authorities contend, the key to sophisticated exposition lies in the proper handling of transitional devices, then it becomes mandatory, not merely for the author but for the instructor as well, to understand the usefulness and variety of these devices. Transition is not easy to teach, nor is it easy to learn; yet it is probably the surest indication of a writer's mastery of his language.

Transitional devices are used primarily to connect a sentence to one immediately following. The sequence of interconnected sentences that make up a coherent paragraph carries the sequence of logical thought relationships that make up a coherent idea. Any complex idea is thus composed of a chain of successive statements; the function of transition is to link these statements, and so clearly indicate the progression of meaning from beginning to end. Without the direction performed by transitional guides, the process of comprehending the written explanation would often become a painful business of re-reading and guessing. The five most important methods of achieving such direction are through (1) repetition of subjects, using the same words, synonyms, or pronouns; (2) repetition of the object (or last words) of one sentence in the subject (or first words) of the next, using the same words, synonyms, or pronouns; (3) repetition of key terms, including pronoun reference (other than as associated with the above); (4) transitional words (co-ordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and transitional phrases); and (5) parallel grammatical structure of sen-

tences. By making explicit the relationships existing among separate observations, these devices enable the writer to construct, and the reader to follow, a pattern of thought that "exposes" what is.

Almost any page from the works of James might be selected to illustrate the use of one or more of the five devices cited.

NEW MAIL PROCEDURE

In an effort to reduce costs and to keep the publication date as early in the month as possible, a new mailing procedure has been instituted with this issue. By eliminating the handling necessary in stuffing envelopes, at least two days can be saved.

But the new procedure is an experiment. We don't know what disadvantage may show up. Will you please write the Editor your reactions? For instance, did your copy arrive unsullied by its travels? Do you have any strong preference for envelopes? DAS

A superbly-built paragraph that illustrates all of them is that introducing chapter nineteen of *The Portrait of a Lady*. It is quoted here in its entirety, with the sentences numbered and transitional words indicated for convenience by bold face type.

(1) As Mrs. Touchett had foretold, Isabel and Madame Merle were thrown much together during the illness of their host, so that if they had not become intimate it would have been almost a breach of good manners. (2) Their manners were of the best, but in addition to this they happened to please each other. (3) It is perhaps too much to say that they swore an eternal friendship, but tacitly at least they called the future to witness. (4) Isabel did so with a perfectly good conscience, though she would have hesitated to admit she was intimate with her new friend in the high sense she privately attached to this term. (5) She often wondered indeed if she ever had been, or ever could be, intimate with any one. (6) She had an ideal of friendship as well as of several other sentiments, which it failed to seem to her in this case — it had not seemed to her in other cases — that the actual completely expressed. (7) But she often reminded herself that there were essential reasons why one's ideal could never become concrete. (8) It was a thing to believe in, not to see — a matter of faith, not of experience. (9) Experience, however, might supply us with very creditable imitations of it, and the part of wisdom was to make the best of these. (10) Certainly, on the whole, Isabel had never encountered a more agreeable and interesting figure than Madame Merle; she had never met a person having less of that fault which is the principal obstacle to friendship — the air of reproducing the more tiresome, the stale, the too-familiar parts of one's own character. (11) The gates of the girl's confidence were opened wider than they had ever been; she said things to this amiable audacious that she had not yet said to any one. (12) Sometimes she took alarm at her own candour: it was as if she had given to a comparative stranger the key to her cab-

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THE CEA CRITIC

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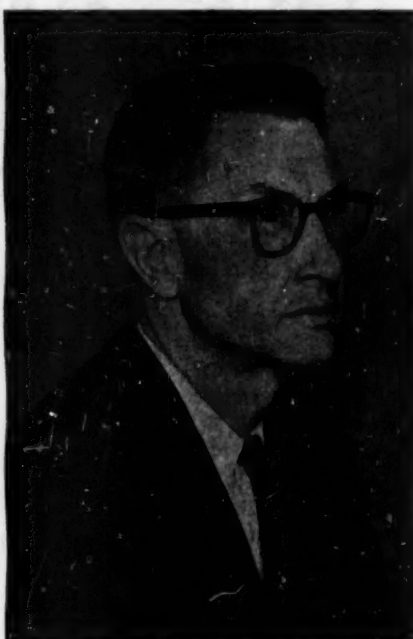
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WHO SPEAKS FOR WHOM?

To CEA MEMBERS: In the left column of this page is a list of names. Please look at it—perhaps for the first time? Here are the people whom you have selected to decide the principles and the actions of the CEA.

How often have you told any of them what you want them to do? Have you called any them to task for what they have done? or praised them? Have they rightly presented your mind in the decisions of the national CEA? of the regional CEA?

Some of you may be perfectly satisfied with everything that has been done. If so, I am surprised. Could such an individualistic group of officers and representatives, intensely concerned with local and national duties and the problems of an important profession, always please any



JOHN HICKS, newly elected Executive Director of the College English Association

one member? If so, then how delighted your officers and representatives are!

But most likely you have complained. The CEA hasn't done the one thing that you believe vital to the salvation of the profession. Perhaps you are one who doesn't think the CEA should help to defend high certification requirements for teachers in a state where they are under fire? Or to cooperate in working out a national statement of Basic Issues in the Teaching of English? Or to speak firmly for the union of teaching and sound scholarship against the debilitation of trivial researchism? Or to encourage CEA Institutes in which members of our teaching profession exchange ideas with representatives of other occupations in our society?

Those people named in the left column of this page are the people to speak or write to. If you like things as they are—tell them. If you don't, tell them—and tell them vigorously. But make your officers and your directors and your regional representatives aware of your will. And see that they do something. The thoughts and the voices of individual members are the only justification for the CEA's voice being heard in national concerns.

John Hicks
Executive Director, CEA

Regional Exchange

(Continued from page 1)

fall meeting. The Roundtable will be edited by Rudolph Fiebler (Louisiana Tech), assisted by the regional president, L. M. McKneely (Northeast La. State College). The focus will be regional, but readers of The CEA Critic elsewhere may be interested in the modest subscription fee of fifty cents. At this same meeting Robert Burroughs (Ouachita) pressed for more adequate

coverage for regional news in The CEA Critic. Perhaps he will be pleased to note that this column parallels his excellent suggestion.

Communication, not conclave: Readers who like to toy with titles should have a gay time. It reminds one of "Is you did your Greek," but that is another story, a regional story.

Patrick G. Hogan, Jr.
Mississippi State University

Notices of Note

The first Yeats International Summer School will be held in Sligo, Ireland, August 13-27, 1960. The object of the school is to provide, for students of Irish poet and playwright William Butler Yeats, a course of lectures and seminars given in the Yeats Country itself and conducted by men who have made a particular study of the poet and of his works.

Courses may be booked for one week or two weeks. In addition to prominent Irish Men of Letters the following scholars will lecture: T. R. Henn, President, St. Catharine's College, Cambridge; Roger McHugh, Senior Lecturer in English Literature, University College, Dublin; A. N. Jeffares, Professor of English Literature, University of Leeds; Peter Ure, Senior Lecturer in English Literature, University of Durham; Ol'ver Edwards, Senior Lecturer, University College, Derry; Donald Davie, Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge; J. F. Kermode, Department of English Language and Literature, University of Manchester; and David R. Clark (NECEA member), Associate Professor of English, University of Massachusetts. Director is Denis Donoghue, English Department, University College, Dublin.

Applications are being accepted by Hon. Organizing Secretary Thomas Mulaney, the Yeats Society, Sligo, Ireland.

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Annual Report of the CEA Committee on General Composition Standards

The activities of the CEA Committee on General Composition Standards has on the surface been relatively quiet this year, but nonetheless vital. This statement may be illustrated in three ways:

1. The committee has acted as a clearing house of information:

a. Through its chairman it has entered into the discussions of the College Conference on Composition and Communication Committee on Accreditation and Certification.

b. It has provided reprints upon request of committee-sponsored activities such as the experiment in articulation reported in the December 1958 C E A Critic.

c. The committee chairman and the CEA vice-president (Donald J. Lloyd) were delegates to the Washington conference of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, October 22-24, 1959.

2. Previous recommendations of the committee as printed in its annual reports have been used in local and state efforts to raise English standards in preparation of teachers. In particular, Patrick G. Hogan, as Chairman of the English Commission of the Mississippi Association of Colleges, has made use of committee reports in guiding his commission.

3. The most spectacular event of the year was the vote of the College Entrance Examination Board to make available a written composition as part of its battery of tests. For over a year the development of this projected essay test has been watched in New England by committee member James Beard. Reprints of committee articles were mailed strategically during the year's discussion period. While

the New England colleges exerted the most direct influence in the vote of the CEEB to provide such a test, the CEA committee may have helped.

Since the appointment of CEA member Floyd Rinker as Executive Director of the CEEB Commission on English (the group set up to administer the essay test), the committee has been in correspondence with him. At his request reprints of the committee reports are being made available to members of his Commission.

The committee calls attention to a special section of the November 1959 *Atlantic* (pp. 114-131) where five authorities present the crisis of composition to a national and popular audience. Such publicity underscores the continued need of CEA activity in the composition area if the voice of the scholar-teacher of English is to be heard.

Respectfully submitted,

James Beard

Earle Eley

Patrick Hogan

Donald Sears, Chairman

QUERELA DOCTORIS

Cupit esse criticus,
Auctor doctrinarum,
Sed est grammaticus,
Praeceptor stupidorum.

Grammatica discipuli
Plena est errorum.
Certum est. Discipulus
Radix est malorum.

Chadwick Hansen

Pennsylvania SU

TEPS in Kansas

The beautiful campus of the University of Kansas, at Lawrence, Kansas, was the setting for the Fourteenth Annual Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. This conference, informally designated NCTEPS, is more popularly called TEPS. The program, an exemplary four-day affair, was co-sponsored by eight major professional organizations and sixty single-subject associations, and involved over 1200 representatives of educational institutions and societies from coast to coast. I was privileged to represent the College English Association and to participate as chairman of a discussion of the curriculum for kindergarten-primary teachers. This article summarizes the purposes and methods of TEPS, outlines the program of the Kansas Conference, suggests emerging points of agreement, and illustrates a few points concretely from my own experience there.

The National Education Association (NEA), parent organization of TEPS, claims to be the largest professional organization in the world, and the only overall national professional association of teachers in the United States. It is an educational force to be reckoned with. If the doubtful charge is brought that NEA is the creature of Education and Administration, then the indicated tactic is to "jine 'em." For better or for worse, NEA seems to be the educational organization most likely to succeed in gaining professional recognition for teachers and teaching commensurate with the nation's requirements. If teaching ever does become a full profession—comparable to law, medicine, and engineering—the NEA will probably be the professional organization corresponding to the powerful associations of lawyers, doctors, and engineers.

The 1959 Kansas Conference was second in the current series of three national conventions directed at strengthening programs for the education of teachers. The purpose of this series is to bring together, face to face at the bargaining table as it were, individuals representing all levels and branches of the teaching profession, in elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, and universities. Bowling Green (Ohio) State University was host for the first of these conferences in 1958; the third will be held in June, 1960, in Los Angeles, California, on the theme, "The Education of Teachers: Certification and Accreditation." The ultimate purpose of the series, each conference followed up and developed through institutional, state, and regional studies throughout the year, is to develop a broad consensus on (1) curriculum content and procedures for the education of teachers; on (2) requirements for certification of individual teachers for specific professional roles; and on (3) requirements for accreditation of institutions providing education for persons entering teaching.

The subject of the Kansas Conference (Please turn to page 7)

new:

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recent:

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More on Modern Language Mutation

Richard K. Morton's article, "Factors in Modern Language Mutations" caught my eye in November's *CEA Critic*, and it occurred to me that several of the points he raised bear comment. The problem lies in where to begin, for Mr. Morton has covered a multitude of problems in a brief space and some of the questions raised are indeed provocative.

For a starter, let's consider things like "It's me." Without going into the possible behavioristic facets (which might fasten on such questions as whether or not the "vertical pronoun," I, is in a weak position unless a verb follow it), this expression, labeled non-standard in most grammars, shows strong evidence of being a purely structural one. That is, the general pattern in English is SPO (subject-predicate-object), with the last in the objective case where possible. It is only possible among the pronouns, of course, since English long ago lost its inflectional endings. Within the framework, then, of SPO, *It* and *is* (or *'s*) fill the first two slots. The last slot is filled, not by *I*, but by *me*.

"He did it like I did" touches upon an entirely different question, and it's one which has plagued writers for many years. But the problem here borders on the semantic, for *like* and *as* are semantically similar; it is only structurally that they differ, the former being used before nouns and substantive constructions, the latter before verb constructions as well.

Many of the "mutations" Mr. Morton writes about are the product of a developmental aspect which has been going on ever since English was first distinguishable as a language. Today it may seem more productive than ever before, but I think history would show that it has been a continuing process in the language. I am referring, of course, to the extraordinary capacity English exhibits for abstracting a denotative or connotative concept from a word which is formally associated with one part of speech and appropriating it for another. This propensity is inherent in Indo-European (among participles, gerunds, infinitives in particular) and is not uncommon in other modern Indo-European languages. But in no other language has it reached the proportions of nonce coinage nor the advantages of vital productivity which it enjoys in English. "I want out" is a possible example of this, although "out" has a fair history as a noun in Modern English (in baseball, in politics, tennis, printing, and other standard usages). So, also, "travel" changes from intransitive to transitive function, and this change may be regarded, in a narrow analysis, as a part of speech change.

Most of the other neologisms mentioned by Mr. Morton are either metaphoric in nature or constitute direct borrowings, either from other languages (*arroyo*, *blitz*)

or from "dialectisms" ("that's for sure," "I'm fixing to go"). It must be remembered, too, that expressions have a fashion. Everyone recalls *hubba-hubba* and *yackety-yak* — in fact, they were heard with sickening frequency some years ago. I don't think they've been heard recently though, and I'm sure they've passed into the limbo of history to join innumerable expressions which have passed this way. While Mr. Morton is quite right in attributing to radio, TV, and other mass media the ability to spread neologisms with lightning-like rapidity, we must not fail to reckon with the *fad* factor in neologisms (especially slang) which drives them, by virtue of over-exposure and fatigue, out of the language with a speed comparable only to that of their appearance.

Metaphoric usages often spring from slang, and the ideas they encompass can prove to be very obscure. But many words of standard usage are metaphoric, as indeed they must be for language to be economical at all. Perhaps metaphoric and connotative meanings are sometimes confused, but I refer to, for example, the kind of denotative-metaphoric switch embodied in the meanings of "of low temperature" (a literal meaning) and "detached; unresponsive" (a metaphoric meaning) for the word *cold*. It is said that the scientists who launched sputnik were not more pleased than the hipsters who finally found a literal interpretation of "way out."

Regionalisms, to be sure, play a large part in lexicon and syntax development, as, indeed, they always have.

As for Mr. Morton's last point, that we may have to provide Americans of the next generation with dictionaries or interpreters so they'll be able to understand us, I can only agree wholeheartedly. After all, "It's a wise child that knows his own father." But above all, I think we should not lose sight of the fact that one of the basic criteria for defining a (living) language is that it undergoes *change*: stability in language, no matter how it might delight the English professor by allowing him to teach from the perspective of history, is not a characteristic feature.

As a sort of footnote to these ramblings, you may be interested in the problem faced by oceanographers who, because of semantic confusion, wished to reject — at least from technical language — the term *tidal wave*. Apparently, so-called "tidal waves" are really caused by underwater volcanic eruptions, upheavals in the earth's crust, and so forth, and not by the tides at all. So, the scientists borrowed a term from Japanese and now call such a wave a *tsunami*. The irony of it all is that in Japanese, *tsunami* means "tidal wave."

Laurence Urdang
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Engineering Alumni Discuss English

What is the role of English in a scientific age? To answer this question, the writer queried two hundred alumni of Newark College of Engineering, who were graduated from the Classes of 1949, 1950, and 1951. They are engaged in engineering and have the perspective, insight and experience with which to answer this question:

What, in your opinion, is the position of English in the scientific and technological world of tomorrow?

The alumni reached the following conclusions buttressed by these quotations:

1. The knowledge of English is as important as the knowledge of technology.

English is at least equivalent in importance to any one technical subject.

It is the most important subject we study. With the partial exception of mathematics, it is the means of expressing all other engineering arts and sciences in spoken or written form. Without perfecting the means of expression it is wasteful to perfect the art of science itself.

2. The knowledge of English is a necessity in the scientific and technological world.

Necessary! Many engineers hope to use engineering as a springboard to management — correct and reasonably effective use of English is essential!

I feel that one of my greatest assets in the business world is to communicate clearly both verbally and in writing so that misunderstanding is avoided. The need for this is and will continue to be of paramount importance. The teaching of this subject is not only desirable but necessary.

3. English will continue to remain as the primary mode of communication — not only in the scientific and technological

world, but also in the arts and political worlds. Without effective English there would be little hope for continuing progress.

Since the magnitude of most scientific projects has been increasing in number of people engaged on one project and in scope, the problem of communication has become the limiting factor in many cases. English is our means of communication, and its use can determine the success or downfall of a project.

As in the past, mastery of speech and the precise presentation and communication of ideas must continue to improve.

4. The knowledge of English will remain the common denominator for technical expression of and communication to all men.

A. Technologists

Communication between technologists is perhaps one of the most important phases of science. Unfortunately, too few engineers today can communicate adequately in writing because they lack brevity and a clear understanding of how to describe their work. Reports and letters often omit important points.

B. Customers

Because of increased complexity in design requirements, it becomes important that every engineer know how to speak and write effectively. In my own case I have found that in the vast majority of new projects, I have engaged in, there was direct contact between the customer and me, the salesman merely cited as the contact man.

C. Laymen

The study of English is very, very important. More and more engineers' writings and speeches are being directed to the

laymen. The laymen must be given basic facts in simple but accurate form. Misunderstanding of scientific and technical information can be dangerous.

D. All levels of technology

The engineer must be able to express himself on all levels. This is so true in dealing with production help, for fancy technical language is just a waste of time. English will be more necessary to convey increased information to mankind. Vocabulary will have to be broadened.

5. English is gaining a more important place in the scientific and technological fields, and the ability to express oneself clearly and to put one's point across will determine to a large extent how far one can advance in these fields.

English in a broad sense of equipping a student with the ability to communicate effectively with others is the most important phase of a technical education. No matter how well an engineer is technically informed, if he cannot effectively present and sell his ideas, he is certain to go unrecognized.

Extremely important — communication is the basis for judgment of abilities, in many cases. The well-written and the logical, well-delivered talk make the man a success — all other things being equal.

6. All ideas and theories have to be expressed in words, written or spoken. To be understood, the language of the scientist or technician will have to be clear and accurate; hence, English should play a very important part in the training of future engineers, scientists, and technologists.

The more complexities such as atoms, electronics, rockets that are developing, the more the definite need of explaining these developments in clear and concise English.

Ideas and results must be transferred to those where it will do the most good. Only through good English composition and vocabulary can this be done.

English is of the highest importance to convey clearly and precisely the tremendous impacts and accompanying changes which scientific achievements are making not only in everyday living but in the probable future adjustments to our moral and physical concepts.

7. The knowledge of English will maintain its present position of great importance as long as we and the British hold our technological co-leadership with Germany and Russia.

English will occupy a position of greater importance in the world of tomorrow. There are, however, two sides to this coin. On the one side, of course, is our rapid technological advance. On the other, however, seems to be our lessening of interest in other people and their languages while they are learning more of us and our language.

English is and will be the means of communication between technological persons and groups in English-speaking countries.

Herman A. Estrin

Newark College of Engineering

eschatology

WHAT DOES IT MEAN? HOW IS IT PRONOUNCED? WHAT IS ITS ORIGIN?

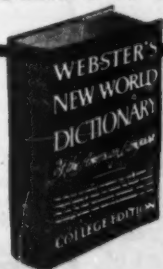
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TRANSITIONAL DEVICES

(Continued from page 1)

inet of jewels. (13) These spiritual gems were the only ones of any magnitude that Isabel possessed, but there was all the greater reason for their being carefully guarded. (14) Afterwards, however, she always remembered that one should never regret a generous error and that if Madame Merle had not the merits she attributed to her, so much the worse for Madame Merle. (15) There was no doubt she had great merits — she was charming, sympathetic, intelligent, cultivated. (16) More than this (for it had not been Isabel's ill-fortune to go through life without meeting in her own sex several persons of whom no less could fairly be said), she was rare, superior and preeminent. (17) There are many amiable people in the world, and Madame Merle was far from being vulgarly good-natured and restlessly witty. (18) She knew how to think — an accomplishment rare in women; and she had thought to very good purpose. (19) Of course, too, she knew how to feel; Isabel couldn't have spent a week with her without being sure of that. (20) This was indeed Madame Merle's great talent, her most perfect gift. (21) Life had told upon her; she had felt it strongly, and it was part of the satisfaction to be taken in her society that when the girl talked of what she was pleased to call serious matters this lady understood her so easily and quickly. (22) Emotion, it is true, had become with her rather historic; she made no secret of the fact that the fount of passion, thanks to having been rather violently tapped at one period, didn't flow quite so freely as of yore. (23) She proposed moreover, as well as expected, to cease feeling; she freely admitted that of old she had been a little mad, and now she pretended to be perfectly sane.

The material of this paragraph is organized in three parts. The first three sentences announce the general subject — Isabel and Madame Merle's intimacy — and introduce the first specific theme — the practical, not perfect, quality of the friendship. This theme, based upon the contrast of ideal and actual, is then carefully developed in the second part of the paragraph, sentences four through fourteen. In the third division, consisting of the final nine sentences, James concentrates upon another opposition in order to expand his subject, that between Madame Merle's admirable abilities to "think" and to "feel." The second section is occupied with Isabel's attitude toward the friendship; the third, with Madame Merle's contribution to it. The entire paragraph (and the book as a whole) is oriented according to the viewpoint of Isabel, yet James allots almost equal space to each of the two halves of the equation, treating Isabel as the subject, Madame Merle as the object of the relationship.

The transitional device most frequently used in this long passage is repetition of key words, especially the continued reference to Isabel and Madame Merle by name or by personal pronoun. There are no less than forty-three instances of the repetition of these proper nouns and the personal pronouns "they" and "she," not to mention synonyms such as "the girl" and "this lady" or possessive pronouns such as "her" and "their." It is interesting to note how regularly and logically distributed the references are. In the first "section," Isabel and Madame Merle are

each named once; in the second, each is named three times; in the third, each twice. The idea of the friendship as a single entity — as distinct from either of its two component aspects — is reflected in the first three sentences by the recurrence of "they"; in Isabel's "section" this pronoun is replaced by "she," which refers to the heroine in all fourteen instances; then in the group of sentences concentrating upon Madame Merle, "she" is used twelve times to refer to the older lady and only once to Isabel.

Pronouns, however, would be of limited rhetorical effectiveness even in such large quantity if they were simply scattered haphazardly through the paragraph: more emphasis is secured by employing them to repeat subjects. For example, sentence four, beginning with "Isabel," is followed by a succession of three sentences each starting with "she" (disregarding for the moment conjunctions and transitional adverbs). Similarly, sentence ten leads off with "Isabel" and is again followed by several repetitions of this subject through sentence fourteen. The same method is evident in the lines dealing with Madame Merle. Pronouns, it may be added, are also used to point to ideas as well as to people: "it" of sentence eight refers to "ideal" in the previous sentence, and "this" of sentence twenty refers to "she knew how to feel" in the previous sentence. The technical virtuosity brought to bear in this display of pronouns and proper nouns makes for a symmetrical, forceful interconnection of statements and exemplifies the inevitable relation between logical thinking and logical writing.

Key words other than the characters' names are often repeated, of course. The most prominent of these have to do, as might be expected, with the two contrasts around which the paragraph is constructed. The word "intimate" occurs three times in sentences one through five. "Eternal friendship" of three and "friend in the high sense" of four are echoed by "ideal of friendship" of six, "one's ideal" of seven, "friendship" of ten, and in somewhat less synonymous terms, by "confidence" and "candour" of sentences eleven and twelve. In the division devoted to the character of Madame Merle, "think" and "feel" are repeatedly emphasized. The latter term particularly is dwelt upon in "great talent," "most perfect gift," "felt [life] strongly," "emotion," "fount of passion," "feeling," and "a little mad."

The repetition of subjects is important in this paragraph only in regard to pronoun reference; more variation is to be seen in the repetition of the object (or last words) of one sentence in the subject (or first words) of the next. The term "manners" joins sentences one and two; "did so" of four looks back to "called the future to witness" of three; "it" of eight refers to "ideal" of seven; "experience" is reiterated as the last word of eight and the first of nine; and "spiritual gems" of thirteen reproduces "jewels" of twelve. These duplica-

tions quite obviously serve the purpose of affecting a smooth progression of thought by linking sentences.

A rhetorical device that is employed more sparingly to achieve the same purpose is parallel structure, here found not in separate sentences but rather in clauses within the sentence. The technique is well exhibited in sentence eight, in which the two objects of "It was" are exactly parallel in meaning and grammatical form. In like manner, the two principal clauses of ten are analogous in sense and structure. This expository device, whose poetic counterpart (Please turn to page 12)

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TEPS in Kansas

(Continued from page 3)

was "The Education of Teachers: Curriculum Programs." The structure of the conference involved forty separate discussion groups of about thirty members each, assigned to specific curriculum areas and purposely chosen to reflect diversified professional interests and views. So far as possible, each group included elementary, secondary, and college teachers, principals, critic teachers, superintendents, student teachers, college deans and department heads, college teachers of professional methods courses, and representatives of public and parochial schools. To provide a definite point of departure, each discussion group first observed a presentation of a single college or university program generally conceded to be a good one. Later on, the groups gathered in "clusters" to observe presentations of twelve specialized programs of teacher education. Most of the groups conducted spirited discussions, love feasts were rare, agreements were often hammered out on major issues; and where there was no agreement, areas of difference were defined. An underlying seriousness informed and gave point to these proceedings.

This was a hard-working conference. The discussion groups met six times, in two "sets," while interspersed among their own sessions were five major addresses to the whole conference, and a group of session meetings where outstanding educators addressed themselves briefly to the unifying theme, "The Education of Teachers—If I Had My Way." Every morning of the conference, before breakfast in the Union cafeteria, mimeographed reports of the previous day's group discussions were ready, along with any minority reports filed by individuals or groups within the larger groups. Likewise, full texts of the addresses of the day before were available, as were multilithed copies of the *TEPS DAILY REPORTER*, illustrated with photographs of prominent individuals and activities of the previous day. Stapled sheaves of the mimeographed group reports were ready on the last day of the conference, and another mimeographed volume, "Tentative Report: The Kansas TEPS Conference," was mailed to participants' homes.

Moreover, even before the conference began, participants received a homework assignment in the form of a 246-page book, *Working Papers for Participants of the Kansas Conference*, which may well be the most useful publication of all. It contains (1) a summary of state teacher-certification requirements; (2) an analysis of the quantitative requirements in the education programs of 294 colleges and universities; (3) a statement, "The Teacher-Education Curriculum," prepared by W. Earl Armstrong, director of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, Washington, D. C.; and (4) abstracts of the undergraduate teacher-education programs of selected institutions that were

presented to the discussion groups. This is a valuable reference work.

What did the Kansas Conference achieve? Perhaps most significant is the simple fact of bringing together in residence, over a substantial period of time, so many educators of divergent views to discuss together curriculum problems. Points of agreement seemed to be emerging, though it is impossible to make a definite statement of consensus in a continuing inquiry. Some of these seemingly emerging points may nevertheless be listed, despite minority dissents on a few of them:

1. Education of teachers is the concern of all educators, not just those in "Education with a capital E."
2. While well-conceived and well-taught professional courses in materials and methods are definitely needed, command of subject matter is more fundamental. There are no methods for teaching subjects the teacher has not mastered.
3. There should be more teachers with earned teaching majors teaching in the first eight grades; the implication is more departmental teaching in the grades. At least one group agreed that kindergarten-primary teachers should have the option of taking teaching majors.
4. Supervised student teaching is of great importance. The concept of internships with suitable remuneration was also discussed.
5. Students should be allowed to take proficiency or qualifying examinations in order to be exempted from taking (1) prerequisite courses and (2) required courses. The point was not to give credit, but to enable students to take more advanced courses for credit.
6. Serious study of a foreign language and culture would be a desirable addition to the curriculum for all teachers. One group felt that kindergarten-primary teachers should be so equipped.
7. The present four-year curriculum is inadequate. Another year is needed.
8. The profession and the nation need a clear image of the professional teacher.

The matter of an adequate image of the professional teacher received serious attention in some discussion groups, in an effort to answer the question, "What is a good teacher?" Following what seemed to me rather a starry-eyed discussion of this topic—(you know: a teacher is trustworthy, loyal, helpful, friendly, courteous, kind, obedient, cheerful, thrifty, brave, clean, and reverent)—I had a mimeographed statement prepared for distribution the next day. As an outgrowth of further discussion, a final paragraph was added.

I conclude my report with this statement, for two reasons. The essentially democratic spirit and method of the highly structured Kansas TEPS conference are concretely illustrated by it. And the subject of a professional code of ethics for teachers may perhaps be important enough to bear in mind.

(Please turn to page 11)

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IE or EI? A New Look at an Old Problem

USE I BEFORE E
EXCEPT AFTER C
OR WHEN SOUNDED AS A
AS IN NEIGHBOR and WEIGH.

This traditional rule has many defects, and so does the equally traditional list of its exceptions: Neither financier seized either species of weird leisure. Indeed, the entire traditional approach to the ie-ei problem fails to fit the facts of the language and should probably be discarded.

The defects became apparent when more than nine hundred sample words spelled with ie or ei were recently examined. These words were collected by a cursory survey of Kenyon and Knott's *Pronouncing Dictionary of American English*, which has also been used as the source of the pronunciations of ie and ei cited later in this article.

One major defect of the traditional approach is that it pretends that dialects do not exist. It is based on the false assumption that all speakers of English pronounce the ie-ei words in the same way — an assumption that is disproved by scores and scores of ie-ei words recorded by Kenyon and Knott. For example, the two letters in *either* and *neither* are sometimes pronounced long e (beet) and sometimes long i (bite). Similarly the two letters in *inveigle* are sometimes pronounced long e (beet) and sometimes long a (bait). Also, the two letters in *lei* are sometimes pronounced in one syllable, with long a (bait), and sometimes in two syllables, with long a (bait) in the first syllable and with short i (bit) in the second. In brief, numerous ie-ei words have variant pronunciations in American English—a fact which the traditional approach blissfully ignores.

Furthermore, the traditional approach is defective because the rule covers only a small proportion of the words actually spelled with ie and ei: it covers only those words in which the two letters are pronounced long e (relieve) and long a (weigh).

In favor of this narrow interpretation of the rule are these three facts. First, all the exceptions in the grotesque sentence (Neither financier. . .) have the two letters pronounced long e in one or more dialects, and this is the only pronunciation common to all these words.

Second, the list of exceptions would have to be enormously lengthened if the rule were construed to apply to other pronunciations of the two letters. In fact, it would have to be lengthened to the point of utter confusion, to include many words where the two letters are pronounced as short i (counterfeit, foreign, forfeit, sovereign, and suffice), as long i (elder duck, Einstein, height, kaleidoscope, pelamograph, and sleight of hand), as short e (heifer and Leicester), and as bisyllabic

sounds (being, deity, reimburse, science, society, theistic, and variety).

Third, the narrow interpretation of the rule is required because the reversal of the two letters after c—illustrated by the contrast between relieve and receive—occurs only where the two letters are pronounced long e. It occurs in ceiling, conceit, deceive, narcaine, perceive, and receive, but not in ancient, conscience, deficient, efficient, omniscient, proficient, science, society, stupifacient, and sufficient. These two groups of words, represented by ceiling and ancient, show that there are more "e" words violating the rule than conforming to it unless the rule is interpreted narrowly.

Since the rule collapses completely when applied to words with pronunciations other than those of relieve and weigh, the conclusion must be that the rule was designed to cover only the words in which the two letters are pronounced with long e or long a.

This conclusion has two important corollaries. First, the limits of the rule should be specifically stated whenever the rule itself is used, either in a textbook or in a classroom. If these limits are not stated, the student is certain to be misled or confused.

Second, the rule covers such a small fraction of the total number of ie-ei words that it is grossly inadequate. It covers only two pronunciations, illustrated by relieve and weigh, in contrast to the score or more pronunciations illustrated by acquiescent, atelier, atheistic, being, biennial, blueing, capercaillie, collie, convenient, deity, die, diet, dyeing, experience, falience, gaiety, heifer, heir, hoeing, insentient, lei, medieval, moiety, Montpellier (proper names have to be spelled too, don't they?), patient, pimiento, Pompeii, quietus, San Diego, shoeing, soldier, and twentieth.

It is almost impossible to state exactly the total number of "uncovered" pronunciations, for the total is different in different dialects. But the total for the whole country must be somewhere around twenty or thirty. If so, then only one out of every ten or fifteen pronunciations of the two letters is covered by the rule — a ridiculously inadequate proportion.

The inadequacy is also demonstrated by the small number of words, as distinguished from the small number of pronunciations, covered by the rule. Among the nine hundred sample ie-ei words, fewer than three hundred were covered by the rule, while more than six hundred were left uncovered. In brief, only about a third of the words were covered!

Highly significant is the fact that these "uncovered" words cause more trouble in spelling than the "covered" words do. At any rate the Pollock list of the five hun-

dred words most often misspelled by college freshmen suggests this fact. Of the forty-six ie-ei words on the Pollock list, twenty-eight are not covered by the rule, while only eighteen are covered. Among these uncovered words are atheist, audience, conscience, convenience, efficient, experience, foreign, height, ingredient, medieval, quiet, sufficient, and view.

The rule must thus be rated as inadequate regardless of whether it is appraised by the number of pronunciations that it covers, or by the number of frequent misspellings that it covers. No matter how it is evaluated, it fails to do the job that it sets out to do.

The traditional list of exceptions (Neither financier seized either species of weird leisure) is also unsatisfactory, for there are far more exceptions than the list contains. These additional exceptions, all of which have the two letters pronounced as in relieve and weigh, fall into two groups: those with the i before e even after c (prima facie and superficies) and those with e before i without c (caffeine, codeine, dell, Holstein, inveigle, Keith, Leif Ericson, Lella, Leipzig, Leight (on), Leitch, MacLeish, Melkie, Monteith, Neilson, obeisance, Oneida, O'Neill, protein, Reid, Reims, seignior, seise, sheik, and Shella).

Obviously, then, the traditional rule and list of exceptions are unsatisfactory — so unsatisfactory that they should never be used again.

(Note: this is Part I of a two-part article; Part II will offer workable rules for the spelling of ie and ei words.)

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STRUCTURAL vs. TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

The movement to impede the progress of a scientific analysis of language seems to be taking shape in two forms. One line holds that there is only grammar, not a structural and traditional grammar. This view parallels the notion that there is no distinction to be made between the theories of astronomy of Ptolemy and Copernicus because both deal with the same celestial phenomena. The second line insists that, even if there is truth in the structural approach, it is too new, too unlike present textbook explanations to be generally adopted for a long time, and so "Let's wait and see." Both lines are supported with a good deal of emotion. A calm appraisal seems to be due.

There are two theories of grammar. They come down to us from Aristotle and Plato. But as in natural science Aristotle's view held sway a long, long time. Aristotle saw language as a set of natural facts and so he arranged these facts, as he did other facts, into classes according to their qualities. He put emphasis upon the message carried by language and defined the classes or categories in terms of message, as in "A noun is a name." Nouns were further subdivided into abstract and concrete, proper and common subclasses. Some people still classify verbs as strong and weak. It has taken twenty-four centuries to discover the fallacy of Aristotle's theory.

Plato held that God geometrizes, that positions, operations, and quantity supply the right basis for the organization of natural facts. The Middle Ages ended when mathematics was introduced into astronomy. Then exact science replaced the superstitions of astrology. Art and music came of age when mathematical principles guided creative artists. Man's conquest of

the unknown has progressed rapidly wherever mathematics has been successfully applied. Language is one of the latest fields of learning to receive a mathematical interpretation.

The first grammar of English based on the concept of position was published by Noah Webster in 1807. The first announcement that a mathematical principle—the theory of functionality—underlies language operation appeared in Leonard Bloomfield's *Language* (1933). The most extensive representation of the mathematical analysis of syntax was made by Donald J. Lloyd and Harry R. Warfel in *American English in Its Cultural Setting* (1956). Webster was derided, especially by Gould Brown in *A Grammar of Grammar* (1851). Bloomfield's syntactical concepts were largely ignored, although his terminology was adopted in a non-mathematical context by C. C. Fries in *The Structure of English* (1952). The Lloyd-Warfel book is now a focal point of attack, vide R. B. Long's "Grammarians Still Have Funerals" in *College Composition and Communication*, Dec., 1958; and A. M. Withers' "Latin versus Analyzers" in *The CEA Critic*, Dec., 1959.

The alternatives are now clearly established: the qualitative or formal or traditional approach versus the mathematical or structural approach. Radically different basic ideas underlie the two.

1. Traditional grammar, being based upon the message, focuses attention upon words. By using the dictionary as its chief source of data, it emphasizes the classification of words, word origins, usage levels, neologisms, slang, and jargon. Particularly it reprimands "the many offenses against the purity of the language" and "everything that is reprehensible in either thought or expression." Its chief tools are definitions, parsing and/or diagramming, filling in of blanks, word choice, and the rewriting of poorly constructed or "bad" sentences.

Structural grammar is concerned with the operating system of language. Communication engineering shows that channel, code, and message are meaningful distinctions. The message cannot dictate to the code, and the code must be adaptable to the channel. Since speech and writing are two codes within the same system, just as the Morse code is a derivative of writing, the importance of the code as opposed to the message becomes clear. There can be an infinite number of different messages, but the code always remains the same. The code as an entity, therefore, must be abstracted from all the messages. Telephone and telegraph channels have been mathematicized; extensive statistical analysis has been made of words. It is obvious that the time has come to mathematicize the codes of speech and writing.

2. Traditional grammar emphasizes meaning and, by invading the territories of semantics and logic, gets hopelessly

bogged down in Aristotelian logic, a logic that finds natural language unsatisfactory and seeks to create through symbolic logic a mathematical language that will escape the pitfalls of natural language. Structural grammar finds the mathematical theory of functionality in natural language and thus discovers the logic of the system. Structural grammarians think that mathematical logicians must base their schemes on the principles inherent in natural language. (Please turn to page 12)

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From Scooba to Chicago

Last spring I had the opportunity of attending an English Workshop at East Mississippi Junior College in Scooba to discuss the problem of reading. On Monday following the Saturday of the Workshop I found myself in Chicago at the National Conference on Higher Education. The problem there, as far as I was concerned, was one of writing, for I served as recorder of one of the discussion groups. The topic of the following remarks made to a fall EMJC Workshop is also the problem of writing, although in conclusion I want to draw an analogy between the activity in these English Workshops and the Chicago type of Conference.

Writing, including its attendant problems, is undoubtedly one of the most perplexing and challenging teaching areas of this or any other state—on all levels. Before attempting a survey of possible methods of dealing with the Hydra-headed problem, I wish to review the seriousness of the matter briefly.

Assuming that there is a correlation between a student's knowledge of grammar, punctuation, and the like, and his writing, Mississippi State University has for a number of years tested all incoming freshmen objectively and placed them in the appropriate sections of Freshmen English. Each year approximately twenty to twenty-five percent of the entering students fail to qualify for a credit section and must spend a semester, or more, in a non-credit course. Most of these students reveal in their first compositions that they have major writing problems of one kind or another, in addition to an inadequate knowledge of the principles covered by the standardized objective test on basic fundamentals.

It should be stressed, however, that these are not the only such students; a varying, but far too large, number of those who enter the lowest credit sections soon exhibit writing deficiencies which are so serious or so ingrained that it is impossible for them to acquire minimum proficiency within one semester; the result is that they must repeat the course. This is the picture not only at Mississippi State University but generally at most of the other colleges and universities in Mississippi. The absolutely essential remedy which is attempted is one which is expensive both for the student and for the institution, and in consumed time and energy as well as dollars and cents.

The picture so far is bleak. Certainly after such a student conquers his semesters of freshman composition he is a relatively proficient writer—for all practical purposes? Not so. The evidence is overwhelming to the contrary. For ten years all students of junior standing at Mississippi State University have been tested for proficiency in writing. This is not an objective test but a sustained piece of expository writing from 500-700 words in length.

The ten-year total of those tested has

reached 10,315 and more than seven hundred more were added on the night of November 4, 1959. Of the 10,315, some 8,372, or 81%, have written what were evaluated as passing papers; 1,943, or 19%, have failed the examination and have been required to take a three-hour course in order to reach the point of minimum proficiency. The 19% is somewhat misleading, for the figure for the past three or four years has hovered between twenty and twenty-five percent; in addition, this failure rate has approximated but 15% for students with senior college backgrounds as compared to 34% for junior college transfers. Students frequently find it necessary to repeat this course, and there are a few instances on record of four and five time repeaters.

The necessity of both these types of program is further complicated, as suggested, by the fact that they constitute a fantastic drain upon instructional time as well as on the wallets of the fee-paying student. It is little wonder that the better-than-average or the superior student so often seems to be neglected, despite the recent revival of interest in such promising young people. Is there no systematic method by which the problem can be attacked, and, perhaps, eventually even solved?

There is one method emerging from several years of experimentation that shows more promise than any of the others subjected to adequate trial and followed by analytical scrutiny. It is not a new process, yet it is not a conscious return to anything traditional. The important factor is that it seems to work—if the teacher who attempts it is also willing to work.

This method is predicated upon the truism that the best way to learn to write is

to write, plus the condition "that there is no such thing as good writing; there is only good rewriting." The system has been tested in sections of the course required of juniors failing the proficiency examination at Mississippi State University, and it is in this framework that it will first be considered; secondly, suggestions will be offered as to its application to writing instruction on any level.

The first step is to double, or even triple, the amount of writing expected of each student. This point is made clear to the class at its first meeting. Most papers, once written and graded, are completely revised, not merely corrected—for mere correction is a procedure which may well become rather mechanical. After at least the first three papers, each student is advised to have a conference with the instructor. The conference is for the purpose of identifying and discussing the individual student's major errors. Following this conference the student is encouraged to repeat the experience after writing three or four more compositions.

It is at this stage that a tentative syllabus may be developed. A predetermined syllabus for such a course is highly impractical if for no other reason than that precious class hours will be consumed in the review of matters of less importance to a given group of students than the principles related to the errors they are actually making. Naturally in the development of such a class-tailored syllabus some areas, such as agreement, spelling, and punctuation, will tend to emerge in every section. And it is with such recurring trouble spots, perhaps even the parts of speech, that textual consideration in class may logically begin.

An important feature is that much of the writing should be done in class; a ratio of two papers in class for each composition written outside is probably desirable. Although students at first usually wish to choose their own topics, they soon see the value of a list of four or five from which they may choose, or a broad topic such as "how something works" or "how to do something."

From the very beginning, students must be led to understand that the grades on early compositions will be quite low. (Perhaps it would be better to assign no grades at this point, but many students have become "grade-conditioned" and they may as well learn that the relative distance between zero and seventy is greater than that from seventy up.) They would not be enrolled in the course if their writing was of passing quality. But it should also be made perfectly clear that progress, not just effort—progress, will be recognized. It is quite possible for a student to write five or six failing papers and still pass the course—if he begins to take his writing and revision seriously, improves slowly and steadily, reaches the point of writing passing papers, and sustains his very real achievement. The five or six poor papers are over-

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balanced by the remainder of the twenty or more he is expected to write.

That this system works is supported by the fact that the failure rate in such sections has dropped from forty to fifty percent to approximately twenty percent. And students, when asked to suggest—in writing, of course—ways to improve the course, usually agree on at least one point: write more.

How, then, can such a demanding system be adapted to other levels of instruction? It has been tried, with slight modifications, with similar success in first semester freshman sections. On the high school level it should be recognized that additional problems exist: the teacher-pupil ratio is often larger; English teachers are in particular demand as sponsors of this and that, as dramatic and debate coaches, and as senior-trippers. Even so, there are specific possibilities which may be mentioned.

A paragraph is better than no paper at all. The writing of a great many paragraphs, at least some of which could be marked carefully and in detail, with revision required, would be a major step in in acquiring writing proficiency. The very paragraphs written by the students could be used as exercises and examples in addition to, or instead of, those in the text. The student who has mastered the structure of an effective paragraph, who knows how a sentence works, who is aware of his achievement and the reason for his progress, and who has acquired confidence in his ability to develop a given topic sentence—such a student will encounter few major difficulties in moving to a sustained piece of writing.

Perhaps it need not be added that spelling cannot be ignored at any level. And until a fool-proof method of learning

to spell is available for standard practice, one lesson can be drawn from the findings of the linguistic scientists: the relationship between the spoken language and the written word should, or could, be closer. A properly pronounced word may very well become a properly spelled written word. Too long have students been made aware of exceptions to the point of preoccupation. To those who are familiar with some of the pronouncements of such linguistic scholars, this may seem to be almost a reversal of the relationships they observe. It is.

Of punctuation but one caution need be stated. Punctuation is only a means to an end, not an end in itself. Students often become experts in exercising options, or in concern with exceptions, yet just as often uncertain of the application of a basic principle. The exception is usually precisely that—an exception; the principle must be operative every time they put pen to paper.

The central concern need not be a return to some sort of traditional or conventional rules, as these concepts are usually defined. But it must be remembered that a language, in the process of becoming meaningful and useful, acquires a structure, a system, a method. There is a basic difference between a typical problem of subject and verb agreement and a typical problem of word choice involving a so-called standard word and a colloquialism. The linguistic principles with which students need to work most, by practice in writing, are those which they can come to trust as reliable guides to the effective communication of their ideas.

In conclusion, it must be admitted, however sadly, that there are no panaceas for poor writing. The suggestions which have been made are simply methods which have worked in practice. Nor can it be denied that these methods require added effort by both student and teacher. The sole justification that may be claimed is one in terms of demonstrable results: a minimum proficiency in the practical use of one's own language.

It was said in the beginning that I had detected an analogy between the English Workshops at Scooba and the Conference in Chicago. And here a ray of light emerges. At the National Conferences on Higher Education, college and university administrators, presidents and deans, gather to consider the broad and complex problems and questions which arise in their institutions. Fourteen such conferences have been held, indicating that at least some answers and solutions have been found and that others are anticipated. My firm belief is that many of the problems that plague English teachers can be solved only by the teachers themselves, those dedicated teachers who are willing to sacrifice the time and effort necessary to make a frontal attack upon the often perplexing problems faced from day to day in the actual classroom—especially upon those concerned with the instruction, guidance,

and stimulation of the writing process. I believe, to paraphrase a Mississippi writer, that such dedicated labor will prevail.

Patrick G. Hogan, Jr.
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TEPS in Kansas

(Continued from page 7)

"A fundamentally and potentially damaging confusion is involved in mingling: (1) strictly professional requirements, on one hand, with (2) desirable personal qualities, on the other, as criteria for entrance into and retention in the profession of teaching.

"Both are important — but (1) professional requirements are objectively enforceable, and may and should be public; whereas, (2) matters of character and personality are internal problems of the profession and should be handled (thoroughly) internally and privately, as in all other real professions (e.g., engineering, law, and medicine).

"Publication of high professional requirements would tend to forward the development of teaching into a full-fledged profession. Publication of ideal personal requirements might tend to raise doubts on this score, and to suggest the need for vigilant scrutiny on the part of the public, school boards, and administrators; this tendency could be fatal to our hopes of becoming a profession sometime.

"A professional code of ethics for teachers dealing with specific kinds of conduct and behavior — if adopted by the profession as a whole — would be another matter entirely, and no doubt should be widely published."

Carl Lefevre
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TRANSITIONAL DEVICES

(Continued from page 6)

is prominent in Old Testament verse, may be extremely helpful in pointing out contrasts, in underlining an idea, and in fortifying a sense of rhythm, although to the modern taste it appears rather artificial in too frequent occurrence.

Finally, possibly the most important transitional method in the paragraph — one important in all of James' work — is the specific connective word, the coordinating conjunction, the conjunctive adverb, and the transitional phrase. The purpose, again, is to maintain coherence by establishing a variety of logical relationships. These words when used to affect transition usually begin the sentence; their extensive and complex use to connect clauses (for instance, "but in addition" and "but tacitly at least" in sentences two and three) is not the present concern. The fourteen examples (bold face in the quotation), first of all, are well distributed, occurring at about the interval of every other sentence. Then too, there is a fairly wide range of meanings involved. Four logical categories are represented: **affirmation** ("indeed" [twice], "certainly," "on the whole," "of course," "it is true"); **contrast and qualification** ("but," "however" [twice]); **addition** ("more than this," "too," "moreover"); and **time sequence** ("sometimes," "afterwards"). The role of such words in guiding the reader through the intricacies of the author's mental processes is apparent: by indicating the connection between successive details, they make it possible for James to suggest the connection between two individuals.

I do not pretend to have surveyed all the expository techniques in this single paragraph from *The Portrait of a Lady*, nor even to have cited all the instances of those mentioned. Much could be made, for example, of James' remarkable use of subordinating conjunctions and punctuation to link clauses. Moreover, it might be interesting to trace the development of theme in the paragraph following the one

quoted, a passage which at the same time carries forward the idea of Madame Merle's sane maturity (the subsidence of "feeling") and looks forward to Isabel's subsequent career: "Life," Madame Merle tells her young friend, "may pull you about horribly, but I defy it to break you up." In examining these points of style, one begins to see why Henry James is regarded as perhaps the foremost master of modern English prose. One begins to understand more precisely why it is that excellent sentence structure and transition are not produced by accident or inspiration, and why the craft of writing is inseparable from the logic of thinking.

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STRUCTURAL vs. TRADITIONAL

(Continued from page 9)

guage, just as non-Euclidean geometers had to proceed from Euclid's axioms and theorems.

3. Traditional grammar is essentially a commentary upon language. It begins by announcing categories of parts of speech and proceeds in deductive fashion to force language phenomena to conform to an inconsistent set of definitions. Structural grammar proceeds inductively by showing language operations and then deriving a consistent set of definitions in terms of the operations. Instead of asking a student to talk about language, the structural approach insists that a student must perfect his production of language forms and sequences. Language, says the structuralist, is a performance. The first and chief test of language knowledge is its easy, efficient, and meaningful use. Talk about language, or about writing gives little help in the development of good language habits.

4. Traditional grammar insists that the study of language must be an intellectual exercise. Its methodology requires parsing. Parsing has led to the creation of a host of problem-solving devices. Workbooks which ask students to choose between

right and wrong forms, to rewrite "bad" sentences, and to do a host of other time-consuming chores not only give students a false idea about the nature of language but also destroy students' sense of command over language. Structural grammarians hold that language is a set of human habits which can be perfected through proper training and practice.

Instead of making language study a matter of intellectual discipline, the structuralists insist that students shall hear the language patterns and produce them on the tongue effortlessly. Reading becomes a matter of bringing the eye to have the same skill as the ear, and writing similarly becomes equated with voice production. The various activities associated with language come to be parts of the operation of a single system with different codes.

The traditionalist puts emphasis upon the analysis of writing; the structuralist asks for an automatic production of speech and writing. The traditionalist asks for answers to questions about language; the structuralist abets demonstrable performance. The traditionalist at best opens a narrow door into a small room called language knowledge; the structuralist opens the doors to the widest intellectual life, for an efficient use of language, the highest skill available to every human being, unlocks all fields of learning.

5. Far from being a new science to teach, structural grammar has an age-old rightness about it like Copernican astronomy. Traditional grammar should have lost ground when Kepler put mathematics into astronomy, but the scholastic tradition has been stronger in language than in any other field. It seems an error in scholarship to engage in a delaying action simply on the ground that one must not be the first to teach something new. The evidence is overwhelming. Only the structural approach provides an appropriate, scientifically grounded philosophy of language for our era of mass education.

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